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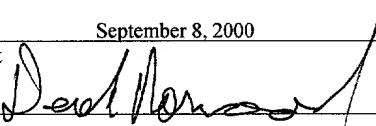
TITLE: COMPRESSION OF 3D SURFACES USING PROGRESSIVE GEOMETRY

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Compression of 3D Surfaces Using Progressive Geometry

This application claims the benefit of U.S.
Provisional Application Serial No.60/175,155, filed on
5 January 14, 2000.

Background

An arbitrary topology surface can be three
dimensionally characterized by descriptions of vertices on
10 the surface and their connectivity. The detail of the
surface depends on the number of points that are described,
and the amount of information describing each point.

The amount of information describing these models can
be extensive. The information, however, can be compressed
15 to reduce some of the load. Compression in general is a
tradeoff between accuracy and bit rate, i.e., bits per
vertex. This tradeoff is captured in rate-distortion
curves.

Rate-distortion curves require the computation of
20 errors or "distortion" between the original surface and a
surface that has been estimated. For geometry, an error
may be computed using techniques that measure the distance
between the geometric shapes. The original and compressed
meshes may have very different sample locations and

connectivity. Progressive compression provides an early, coarse approximation of the geometry. This is subsequently improved through additional information.

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SUMMARY

A new progressive geometry compression method is disclosed which is based on smooth semi-regular meshes. The Semi-regular meshes may be used with wavelet transforms and zerotree coders. Missing geometry information may be filled in with smooth subdivision patches. Hence even highly compressed surfaces can be smooth and visually pleasing.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

15 Figures 1A - 1D show views of progressive compressions of a Venus head;

Figures 2A-2C shows triangulations of a sphere;

Figure 3 shows rate distortion curves;

20 Figure 4 shows a flowchart of an operation of compressing a 3D image;

Figure 5 show histograms of wavelet coefficients;

Figure 6 shows histograms of polar angles of wavelet coefficients; and

Figure 7 shows subdivisions of surfaces.

5

DETAILED DESCRIPTION

Any source geometry is continuous. Any digital representation, such as a triangle mesh, has some error **E** associated with it. This error **E** has three components - due
10 to sampling, discretization, and quantization.

Sampling error **Es** arises from acquisition noise.

Discretization error **Ed** is due to the fact that a triangulation with edge length h can approximate a smooth geometry no better than $O(h^2)$. A finite bit representation
15 for the continuous vertex positions leads to the quantization error **Eq**. Sampling and triangulation of the model fix **Es** and **Ed**. A standard floating point representation inside the computer typically leads to a quantization error much smaller than **Es+Ed**. Single rate
20 coders quantize the vertex positions more coarsely, leading to a quantization error **Eq≈Es + Ed**. They then losslessly encode the connectivity and quantized vertex positions.
Existing progressive coders aim to eventually recover the quantized sample locations and original connectivity.

25 Since distortion is measured as geometric distance, the sample locations and connectivity can be treated as

additional degrees of freedom to improve the rate-distortion performance. As long as the final result has a geometric error on the order of the original \mathbf{E} , the actual sample locations and connectivity do not matter. The 5 information contained in the sample locations is, parameter information. For example, by letting the vertices slide within the surface, only the parameter information is changed and not the geometric fidelity.

Meshes can be built by successive triangle 10 quadrisection starting from a coarse irregular mesh. This is done to eliminate certain parameter and connectivity information. Almost all vertices in a semi-regular mesh have valence six. Their sample locations can be estimated well. Parameter and connectivity information make up a 15 considerable fraction of the bit budget in existing coders, but do not contribute at all to reducing geometric error. Consequently, the rate-distortion curves of this method can be better than those of existing coders. For most models, the error of the present system is about four times smaller 20 at comparable bit rates, a 12 dB improvement.

The present application builds on the observation that parameter information makes up a significant fraction of the bit budget while not contributing to error reduction at all.

The technique of the present application starts with a defined irregular mesh describing a 2-manifold, without or with boundary. It produces successive approximations employing semi-regular meshes, that is, meshes which are as 5 regular as possible. Since the meshes are more regular, less parameter and connectivity information can be used.

The coder first produces a hierarchical approximation of the surface. This expression is subsequently encoded with a coder, e.g., a zerotree progressive coder.

10 Advantages include the following. Parameter information can be reduced. A Loop based wavelet transform can be used for high order decorrelation and subdivision based reconstruction. A special zero tree hierarchy can be used for primal semi-regular triangle meshes of arbitrary 15 topology.

Zero Tree Coders are wavelet based progressive coders based on zero trees. They are described, for example, in Said, A., and Pearlman, W. A New, Fast, and Efficient Image Codec Based on Set Partitioning in Hierarchical Trees. IEEE 20 Transaction on Circuits and Systems for Video Technology 6, 3 (1996), 243-250; Shapiro, J. Embedded Image-Coding using Zerotrees of Wavelet Coefficients. IEEE Transactions on Signal Processing 41, 12 (1993), 3445-3462; Davis, G., and Chawla, S. Image Coding Using Optimized Significance Tree

Quantization, in Proceedings Data Compression Conference,
387-396, 1997.

Zero tree coders effectively exploit the fact that
wavelet coefficients at finer scales tend to be smaller in
magnitude than coefficients at coarser scales in the same
region. A zero tree coder encodes the location of
coefficients below threshold in subtrees.

Previous compression approaches have typically treated
triangle meshes as having two distinct components:

10 connectivity and vertex positions. State of the art coders
are able to encode connectivity of irregular meshes with 2
bits/vertex ("b/v") or even less. Hence, it is argued,
vertex positions are much more expensive and their coding
needs further advancement, for example through better
15 predictors.

The present application handles three components:
connectivity, geometry, and parameter information
separately. The parameter information captures the sample
locations within the surface. The geometry information
20 captures the geometry independent of the sample locations
used. In the prior art, parameter and geometry information
have been treated together.

Consider a vertex of a particular Venus head
triangulation in Figure 1A-1D. Moving this vertex slightly

within the surface does not change the discretization error or the geometry information -- It only affects the parameter information. Alternatively, moving the vertex in a direction normal to the surface changes the error and 5 geometry information. However, it leaves parameter information unchanged. This illustrates that while geometry and parameter information are globally intertwined, they *disconnect locally. Parameter information is described by displacements in the tangent plane to the surface. Geometry 10 information, on the other hand, is normal to the surface. This implies that from a rate distortion point of view, bits should be allocated preferentially to the local normal direction. For smooth parameterizations, this may occur naturally, since prediction residuals in the tangent plane 15 will be small.

The distinction between geometry, parameter, and connectivity information can be seen from three triangulations of a sphere shown in Figures 2A-2C. All three meshes have the same geometry information and carry 20 the same discretization error **Ed** with no sampling noise. The first two meshes have semi-regular connectivity but different parameter information. The middle sphere in figure 2B was generated by moving the sample locations within the sphere, thereby adding extra parameter

information. The rightmost sphere in Figure 2C has irregular connectivity and parameter information.

Figure 3 shows the respective resulting rate-distortion curves when using the state of the art non-progressive

5 coder of Touma, C., and Gotsman, C. Triangle Mesh
Compression. Graphics Interface '98 (1998), 26-34, herewith
"the TG coder". The non-progressive curves are dashed
since these points are not achievable in a progressive
manner. In case of the smooth semi-regular mesh, the TG
10 coder correctly noticed that it contains almost no
connectivity information (0.1 b/v) and almost no parameter
information. Its performance is essentially limited by the
quality of the predictor used. The TG coder for the non-
smooth semi-regular sphere is worse, thereby illustrating
15 the bit penalty for parameter information. The TG coder for
the irregular mesh (right) illustrates the additional
overhead from irregular connectivity. This example
demonstrates that reducing both connectivity and parameter
information in a mesh can have advantages.

20 Finally, the small curve near the y-axis shows the
result of applying our coder to the smooth semi-regular
mesh. It can approximate the sphere with a relative error
of 5×10^{-5} using 166 bytes or approximately 0.5 b/v. This is
because a sphere has very little geometric information and

smooth semi-regular mesh is essentially optimal for the coder. This is where the high order decorrelation and subdivision based reconstruction really pays off. This same effect is used in smooth, regularly sampled regions of
5 more general surfaces.

Components of the surface compression technique are described with reference to the flowchart of Figure 4A.

An arbitrary connectivity 2-manifold with boundary triangulation is taken as input at 400. A smooth global parameterization is calculated using the "MAPS" technique
10 at 405. Successive adaptive approximations with semi-regular connectivity are calculated at 410. These semi-regular approximations are subsequently wavelet transformed at 415 and progressively compressed using zerotrees at 420.
15 The coarsest level connectivity is encoded using a standard non-progressive mesh encoder. The decoder may produce intermediate approximations from any prefix of the bitstream.

Error is based on the distance $d(X, Y)$ between two
20 surfaces X and Y . Let $d(x, Y)$ be the Euclidean distance from a point x on X to the closest point on Y . Then the L^2 distance $d(X, Y)$ is given by

$$d(X, Y) = \left(\frac{1}{area(X)} \int_{x \in X} d(x, Y)^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

This distance is not in general symmetric but can be symmetrized by taking the max of $d(X,Y)$ and $d(Y,X)$. For triangulations this distance can be computed using the
5 publicly available METRO tool described in Cignoni, P., Rocchini, C., and Scopigno, R. Metro: Measuring Error on Simplified Surfaces. Computer Graphics Forum 17, 2 (1998), 167-174. The L^2 errors reported here are relative with respect to the bounding box diagonal on a scale of 10^{-4} ,
10 while rate is reported in bits per vertex (b/v) with respect to the number of vertices in the original input mesh. Other error measures could of course be used.

410 represents computation of a smooth parameterization of the input triangulation using the MAPS
15 described in Lee, et al., A. W. F., Sweldens, W., Schröder, P., Cowsar, L., and Dobkin, D. MAPS: Multiresolution Adaptive Parameterization of Surfaces, Proceedings of SIGGRAPH 98 (1998), 95-104. MAPS allows for automatic alignment of iso-parameter lines of the semi-regular mesh
20 with sharp features of the original input surface. This can avoid large wavelet coefficients near any creases.

MAPS builds a bijective map between the input mesh T and a coarse base domain B . Regular triangle quadrisection is applied in the base domain B for additional detail. The

mapping is used to build semi-regular approximations of T .

These approximations have some remeshing error \mathbf{E}_r with respect to T . While this error can be made arbitrarily small, the remeshing error \mathbf{E}_r maybe of the same size as the 5 discretization error \mathbf{E}_d . This roughly occurs when the triangles from the semi-regular mesh are about the same size as the triangles of the input mesh. Using smaller triangles only serves to produce a better approximation of the input mesh, not necessarily of the original unknown 10 geometry.

An order estimate of \mathbf{E}_d may be computed to determine when to complete the operation. The distance between the input mesh T and a much finer mesh S obtained by Butterfly subdividing T may be used for this purpose. The latter 15 serves as a proxy for the unknown original geometry. Once the semi-regular mesh error \mathbf{E}_r is below the estimated discretization error \mathbf{E}_d , there is no need to further refine the semi-regular mesh. Hence the rate distortion curves may converge to the \mathbf{E}_d estimate.

20 The wavelet transform of 415 replaces the original mesh with a coarsest mesh and a sequence of wavelet coefficients expressing the difference between successive more detailed levels. Neighboring vertices of these piecewise smooth models, can be highly correlated. The

wavelet transform removes a large amount of this correlation. The distribution of wavelet coefficients is centered around zero. Their magnitude decays at finer levels with the rate of decay related to the smoothness of 5 the original surface. A zerotree coder may be used for the bit encoding of coefficients.

Several methods for building wavelet transforms on semi-regular meshes exist as described in Lounsbery, M., DeRose, T. D., and Warren, J. Multiresolution Analysis for 10 Surfaces of Arbitrary Topological Type. ACM Transactions on Graphics 16, 1 (1997), 34-73. Originally available as TR-93-10-05, October, 1993, Department of Computer Science and Engineering, University of Washington; and Schröder, P., and Sweldens, W. Spherical Wavelets: Efficiently 15 Representing Functions on the Sphere. Proceedings of SIGGRAPH 95 (1995), 161-172. These are typically based on interpolating subdivision schemes such as the Butterfly scheme. Lifted Butterfly wavelets are known. The advantage of lifted wavelets is that both forward and inverse 20 transform can be computed with finite filters.

A Loop wavelet transform has the advantage that the inverse transform uses Loop subdivision. Experimentally, we found it has rate distortion curves similar to Butterfly, but typically better visual appearance.

The choice of Loop subdivision fixes the low pass reconstruction filter P in a wavelet construction with a high pass reconstruction filter Q. Together they define the inverse wavelet transform

$$5 \quad p^{j+1} = (P \ Q) \begin{bmatrix} p^j \\ d^j \end{bmatrix}$$

where p^j are the usual control points and d^j the wavelet coefficients at level j. For performance reasons, Q should have small support. One way to achieve this is to apply the quadrature mirror construction to derive a high pass filter from a low pass filter. The result is shown in the regular case in Figure 4.

Around irregular vertices, P is modified as usual. For edges immediately adjacent to an "irregular" vertex, that is, one where the valence is other than six, Q is modified as well. The only taps of the Q filter that can fall onto irregular vertices are the two -6 coefficients left and right from the center. If one of them is irregular, that part of the filter is relaxed and the coefficients are parameterized by edge number, counting from the ``10''. (See the right of Figure 4) Note that if an irregular vertex has valence less than six, this leads to the stencil folding over on itself. If the valence is larger than six,

a gap remains. This does not impact the numerically computed condition numbers of the transform.

The forward wavelet transform, which goes from finer to coarser levels, is defined as the solution $[p^j, d^j]$ of the 5 linear system in Equation 1 for a given p^{j+1} . The forward wavelet transform is computed as the solution of a sparse linear system. A bi-conjugate gradient solver with diagonal preconditioning may be used.

Solving a linear system may make the forward transform 10 slower than the inverse transform. This is acceptable as encoding is typically done once off-line as compared with decoding which happens frequently and in real time. For the Venus head model, the Loop forward transform takes 30 sec. on a 650Mhz Pentium III while the inverse transform takes 5 15 sec. In case symmetry is important, one can use the Butterfly transforms for which both forward and inverse transforms can be performed in 2.5 sec.

The decorrelating power of the wavelet transform is illustrated in Figure 5. The left shows the histogram of 20 the magnitude of the Venus model vertex positions. The right shows a histogram of the magnitude of the wavelet coefficients. This demonstrates that a large amount of correlation is removed and the first order entropy is decreased considerably.

The wavelet transform results in wavelet coefficients which may be vector valued. These coefficients may be represented in a local frame induced by the surface tangent plane. This causes the variance of normal wavelet components to be on average twice as large as the variance of the tangential components. Recalling the earlier geometry versus parameter distinction, this is exactly what we want. In a smooth semi-regular mesh, the geometry information (normal component) is much larger than the parameter information (tangential component). Figure 6 illustrates this by showing the histograms of the polar angles q (the angle from the z of normal axis) of the wavelet coefficients in global and local coordinate frames. The distribution becomes relatively non-uniform in the local frame with peaks around 0 and π indicating that most of the wavelet vectors lie in the normal direction. The f angle is the angle along the equator. This is fairly uniformly distributed and does not change much in the local frame. Consequently any two basis vectors may be used in the tangent plane.

As demonstrated above, parameter, i.e., tangential, information does not contribute to the error metric. The tangential wavelet components can still contain some geometric information. However, the error metric is less

sensitive to quantization error of tangential versus normal wavelet components. Thus, the error curves can be improved by more coarsely quantizing the tangential component.

A basic operation in a scalar zerotree coder is the
5 coefficient significance test, i.e., checking its magnitude against a threshold. If it is below the threshold, the coefficient is added to a zerotree, else the location and sign of the coefficient needs to be transmitted. For the vector case, this becomes more difficult. Three
10 quantization options are contemplated. (1) Spherical cells allow the magnitude to be used for the significance test. The quantized angular components become ``generalized'' signs. (2) For cubical cells, the cube is divided into 64 subcubes. Coefficients in the 8 internal cubes become
15 insignificant and the others become significant. The cell number again is an analog of angular component. (3) Each vector component can be handled independently and encoded separately. This reduces the vector case to three independent scalar passes.

20 It is believed that three scalar passes results in the best rate distortion curves for all models. Experimentally, it was found that quantization cells for the tangential component were best taken to be 4 times larger than those for the normal component.

Scalar quantization uses, three independent zerotree coders. The bits from the three coders can be interleaved to maintain progressivity.

A general principle of wavelet coefficient encoding is

- 5 to send the highest order bits of the largest magnitude coefficients first, since they make the most significant contributions towards reducing error. Let $T_0 = \max\{|c_{il}|\}$ be the maximum magnitude of all coefficients. Then, in a first pass the coder should send the locations (index i) of
- 10 newly significant coefficients, $|c_{il}| > T_0/2$. Doing so naïvely is expensive. However, if source and receiver agree on a canonical traversal order, the source only has to send the result of the significance test $S(i) = (|c_{il}| > T)$ and, if true, the sign bit of c_{il} . If coefficients can be
- 15 organized into canonical sets such that with high probability all coefficients in a given set are simultaneously below threshold, a few set-based significance tests can enumerate the locations of the relevant coefficients. The decay properties of wavelet
- 20 coefficients make their hierarchical tree organization the natural set structure. Coding consists of a number of passes with exponentially decreasing thresholds $T_{j+1} = T_j/2$. In each pass, significance bits are sent for newly significant coefficients. Additionally, refinement bits are

sent for those coefficients which became significant in an earlier pass. Since source and receiver already agreed on locations of the latter, no location bits have to be sent for them. The number of such bit plane passes depends on 5 the final quantization level. The decoder can reconstruct the geometry associated with any prefix of the bitstream by running an inverse wavelet transform on the coefficient bits it has seen so far.

The present system may use a different construction of 10 the zerotrees. For images, one associates the coefficients with a quadrilateral face (pixel) and the trees follow immediately from the face (pixel) quadtree. While this works also for dual, i.e., face based subdivision schemes, our triangular transform is primal, i.e., vertex based.

15 Scale coefficients are associated with vertices. However, wavelet coefficients may be put into a one to one association with edges of the coarser mesh. Each edge can then be the parent of four edges of the same orientation in the finer mesh as indicated in Figure 7. Hence, each edge 20 of the base domain forms the root of a zerotree; it groups all the wavelet coefficients of a fixed wavelet subband from its two incident base domain triangles. The grouping is consistent even for a semi-regular mesh.

Scale coefficients from the coarsest level are quantized uniformly. Experimentally, it is believed that it may be best to send 4 bit planes initially with the base domain connectivity. Each remaining bitplane is sent as the 5 zerotrees descends another bit plane.

The zerotree technique may be effective at exploiting parent-child coefficient correlations, minimizing the amount of encoded significance bits. However, the output of the zerotree coder can still be compressed further through 10 techniques such as arithmetic coding, which may allow for a fractional number of bits per symbol.

The zerotree coder output has three different types of information, including significance bits, refinement bits and sign bits. Refinement and sign bits tend to be 15 uniformly distributed; hence they are not entropy coded.

Significance bits on the other hand can be further entropy coded. For early bitplanes, coefficients may be insignificant resulting in mostly zero bits. For later bitplanes, many coefficients become significant, resulting 20 in mostly one bits. An arithmetic coder naturally takes advantage of this.

Encoding of the significance bits in groups may further improve performance of entropy coding. Children of any node appear together during a zerotree pass. Their

significance bits may be grouped to form symbols of a 2^j alphabet ($j = 4, 3, 2, 1$). The actual number of bits of the alphabet is the number of children which were left insignificant at the previous pass. This grouping exploits 5 correlations between magnitudes of spatially close wavelet coefficients.

Other embodiments are contemplated. For example, although coding with zerotrees is described, other types of coding may be used.

10 All such modifications are intended to be encompassed within the following claims.

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